

Establishing Textual Authority and Separating Voices: A New Approach to Teaching Referencing

Knowing how to reference is important not only for students studying in English-speaking countries, but also for those who might want to publish in English-medium journals. In many universities, however, it is often just assumed that students know how to reference, and approaches to teaching referencing are little more than a public reading of the institution's plagiarism policy. As English language teachers, we need to take the lead in designing a coherent referencing curriculum to enable our students to authoritatively quote and paraphrase so they are better equipped to achieve their academic goals.

Ironically, our theoretical understandings have far outstripped conventional approaches to teaching referencing. We now know, for instance, that English language learners by and large do not plagiarize deceitfully. We know that using bits and pieces of other texts may be integral to language learning. And we know that referenc-

ing is tied to our ability to establish textual authority. But how do we address these issues in class?

Over semesters of discussion with students about the differences between their writing cultures and my U.S. academic one, I found that difficulties with referencing are connected to differences in how students read and write texts. In response, I developed a new approach to teaching referencing based on establishing textual authority and separating writers' voices. Because I teach composition as a theme-based course, my referencing lessons relate to theme-based reading and writing assignments.

In this article, I first present a short discussion of key theoretical ideas that inform the approach, and then I describe five lessons, four of which are integrated into the course theme of "homelessness." There are many reasons why I use this theme. Perhaps most important, I find that homelessness, together with poverty more generally, is a theme that is

accessible to students from any country. In addition, the theme offers ample opportunity to discuss stereotyping and to reflect on our own attitudes. Depending on the level, majors, or interests of the students, the theme is well suited for writing personal essays, analyzing media discourses, and introducing academic terms such as *identification* and *differentiation*.

Why just defining plagiarism does not work

At my university, plagiarism is defined as presenting “the work, products, ideas, words, or data of another as one’s own” (Towson University 2008). The academic integrity policy on plagiarism goes on to explain:

Indebtedness must be acknowledged whenever:

1. one quotes another person’s actual words or replicates all or part of another’s product. This includes all information gleaned from any source, including the Internet.
2. one uses another person’s ideas, opinions, work, data, or theories, even if they are completely paraphrased in one’s own words.
3. one borrows facts, statistics, or other illustrative materials. (Towson University 2008)

The definition of plagiarism seems straightforward, but as ESOL teachers we know that our students may not be familiar with it. Unfortunately, the concepts of plagiarism are not self-evident, so teaching the definition is not enough. I have found, for instance, that my students cannot accurately distinguish between a *quotation* and a *paraphrase*. Difficulties with these terms are embedded in culturally different ways of reading and incorporating texts into writing. When academics read, we keep track of who said what. We read texts not as information to be absorbed, but as claims to be analyzed. In contrast, some students may complete assignments based on assumptions that the text presents the truth, that they should read to learn that truth, and that they should write to demonstrate mastery of it. Students may seek to learn the collected wisdom of society and find it picayune to spend time sorting out who wrote what. This

may be true for students in the United States as well as for those from other countries. When, for example, secondary students in the United States read textbooks, they often read to master material that society considers to be true. Students are not expected to make distinctions between the positions of different authors because the textbook is usually written by only one person (who likely did not use citations!).

For some students, memorization also plays a role in their approach to writing. When they memorize a text, they not only master the content but also the words. My Chinese students are happy to produce excerpts from texts verbatim since, they believe, the texts are better worded than their own writing would be. When they reproduce a text, they may experience it as shared common knowledge, and therefore not cite it. Thus, it is not at all self-evident to some students that the idea of *common knowledge* does not permit the verbatim reproduction of words or knowledge from a text without appropriate citation.

Furthermore, some students do not have experience in recording the positions of different authors in their writing, because they were taught to seamlessly meld the voices of authority with their own. As one of my Korean students explained, in Korea, she and her classmates “copied information from several websites, and melded them invisibly.” This does not mean that they did not have their own perspectives, but rather, that they did not think that separating out their perspectives was appropriate or politically savvy, or would get them an A. As Ramanathan and Atkinson (1999) explain, students from cultures with collectivist or interdependent values “learn to write not so much to present an original, strong, individual self, but to show how much they have internalized of the transmittable tradition of their cultures”; therefore, reproducing texts “is often more highly valued than writing something ‘new’” (63).

By contrast, when academics write, we do not seamlessly meld our voices with the voices of authority. Rather, we keep our voice separate, and draw on other texts, using citations, to show that we are informed and to establish ourselves as members of a community knowledgeable about such things. A student paper that does not establish authority in this way

may frustrate a teacher more than one that omits citations. Fascinatingly, Starfield (2002) reports on a student who did not seem to have control of the topic and was seen as a plagiarizer, even though he used references, while another student who was able to establish authority was not seen as a plagiarizer, even though he did not follow referencing conventions. The student who was seen as a plagiarizer relied too heavily on other texts, and referenced too much to establish his own authority. English teachers may believe that students who write strings of summaries, or who lift the structure of their argument from another source, do not have control of the topic, even though this may not be true. In recognition of culturally different ways of constructing texts, Scollon (1995) suggests that the plagiarism of Chinese students may be a form of unconscious resistance arising from differing cultural understandings of the self and how an author represents himself or herself as authoritative in writing.

It may also be that some resistance arises from the contradictions between our definitions of plagiarism and the nature of language learning. Individuals who grow up in an English-speaking context are exposed to many different registers and ways to phrase things in English, and over time they learn to recombine words by borrowing the words of others. Much of this is done orally, but written assignments also contain borrowed phrases such as, "It has become commonplace to assert that..." and, "It is the object of this essay to suggest..." (Howard 1995, 789). English language learners do the same thing, but because they have much less exposure to English, they have many fewer opportunities to recombine words orally. This not only means that they do not have as much facility in coming up with different ways of saying things, but also that more borrowings occur in their writing.

Rather than calling such borrowings "unacceptable paraphrases" or "unattributed quotations," I prefer the term *patchwriting* (Howard 1995). Patchwriting has come to describe student papers that look like quilts of new and borrowed language sewn together. Here is an example from one of my student's essays: "While the U.S. presidential election campaign was in progress in July, 2008, the presumptive Democratic presidential nomi-

nee, Barack Hussein Obama announced his plan for Iraq." Here, the student borrowed vocabulary: the entire phrase "presumptive Democratic presidential nominee." This borrowing elicits a number of interesting questions. If we call this plagiarism, how can it be corrected? Wouldn't it be odd to quote and cite such an oft-used phrase? At the same time, isn't it a difficult phrase to paraphrase? Moreover, do newspaper writers try to quote or paraphrase the phrase, or do they simply claim ownership of it and use it over and over? Finally, if we do not let the students try out such expressions, how will they ever develop mastery of them?

Patchwriting helps us respond to such questions by recognizing that all texts draw on others, and that they do so far more often than we tend to acknowledge. Pennycook (1996, 207), after enumerating a list of esteemed and plagiarizing English writers, concludes that "it is hard not to feel that language use is marked far more by the circulation and recirculation of words and ideas than by a constant process of creativity." My students know that they need to borrow words to improve their English writing, and increasingly, scholars recognize this as well. They recognize that plagiarism may be an artifact of the language learning process or a strategy used by students as they learn to produce academic English texts (Abasi, Akbari, and Graves 2006; Chandrasoma, Thompson, and Pennycook 2004; Currie 1998).

Teaching the definition of plagiarism does not work because inherent in it is an assumption that textual borrowing is morally wrong rather than a linguistic process that we all go through as we develop a new academic register. At my university, the language of morality is obvious; plagiarism is defined in the academic integrity policy, and flanked by discussions of trust and academic dishonesty. For students who misuse references because they are trying to approximate the register of academia, being accused or forewarned of deceit is not an appropriate or effective teaching strategy. I have found that students react badly when teachers respond to plagiarism with emotional intensity. As one of my Korean students wrote in an essay on cultural differences in writing: "Even, because of plagiarism, once, my professor of art history class was very angry at one of

her students in her class... She stresses about morality, and said that writing without any references is also a crime. I don't understand why she has that much angry feeling."

A new approach

The following approach to teaching referencing focuses on establishing textual authority and separating the voices of authors in writing. Taking as its starting point the assumption that plagiarism is a cultural construct, it removes textual borrowing from the realm of morality and addresses the culturally different ways that we read and construct texts. The five lessons presented below should be reinforced through conferencing, margin comments, and follow-up discussions.

Lesson 1: Defining *quote* and *paraphrase*

Distinguishing one's voice from those of other authors is important to establishing textual authority and avoiding plagiarism. The first lesson in teaching students how to separate voices is to teach them to distinguish between quoting and paraphrasing. The goal is to show students that voices should not be melded together.

This lesson uses a handout with (1) short definitions of *quote* and *paraphrase*, (2) an excerpt from Kozol's (1994) *Distancing the Homeless* (or another text that the students have read and will write about), and (3) several quotes and paraphrases of the text. (See the Appendix for a sample handout.)

First, have the students read the definitions. They seem straightforward, and the students will likely say they understand. Then, have the students determine whether each of the quotes would be acceptable to use in a paper. On the sample handout in the Appendix, none of them is. The first two quotes drop phrases from the original sentences with no ellipsis. But it is the third quote that really surprises the students. It leaves out only the use of italics on the title *Washington Post* and changes the numerals "500" to the words "five hundred." Students are dumbfounded that such changes count. This is the moment when they learn what a quote really is.

Next, have the students determine whether the paraphrases could be used in a paper. The first example is a typical instance of an unacceptable paraphrase; the sentence is largely the words of the original, with some omitted.

The second example "corrects" this by putting the omitted words back in, yielding an unattributed quote. The third example changes most of the main words in the sentence but preserves the structure. Even students who recognize the first two as unacceptable are surprised by the fact that the third is also unacceptable. The fourth example is the only acceptable paraphrase. It is longer than the previous one. Point out that this is because it is much easier to paraphrase a chunk of text than a single sentence without violating referencing conventions.

Lesson 2: Introducing a source

The goal of this lesson is to give students some language to separate voices in their writing. Begin by explaining that the first time they mention a source in a paper, they must introduce it by including the author's last name and the date of publication. This introduces the concept of in-text citations, but without the complication of formatting rules. The notion of introducing one's sources seems odd to students who are used to writing to demonstrate that they have mastered their course readings. These students do not understand why they should introduce the texts, since their reader is the teacher who assigned them! Thus, the lesson brings up an important discussion about audience.

Then, explain that writers include information to help their readers understand why and how they are using the source. This part of the lesson requires texts that the students have read and will write about. For this example I use these three texts: Chapter 7 of *Travels with Lizbeth* by Eighner (1993, 111–25); Chapter 1 of *Paths to Homelessness* by Timmer, Eitzen, and Talley (1994, 3–9); and Tokars (2008).

First, have the students identify the genre of the texts. Eighner (1993) is an autobiographical narrative; Timmer, Eitzen, and Talley (1994) is the introductory chapter to an ethnography; and Tokars (2008) is a newspaper article. Then, have the students evaluate each author's perspective on the topic. Perspective may be connected to genre, as in the case of Eighner (1993), who writes about homelessness based on his own experience, and Timmer, Eitzen, and Talley (1994), who base their ethnography on interviews with homeless people and a structured analysis.

However, perspective may be at odds with the genre, as in the case of Tokars (2008), whose news report reveals bias and a lack of balanced reporting by, for example, using “drunks” to refer to homeless people. Have the students consider whether it is helpful to the reader to include information about genre and perspective when introducing the texts in their writing.

Second, have the students consider how to give an overview of the texts. Students should determine whether it is helpful to include the titles or not. Some titles, such as *Travels with Lizbeth*, do not reveal the topic of the text, while others, such as *Paths to Homelessness*, do. Have the students summarize the purpose, main point, or topic of the source text in their own words. Finally, have the students practice writing introductory sentences that include the author, date, and text overview for each source. Here is an example:

Paths to Homelessness by Timmer, Eitzen, and Talley (1994) is a research study of homeless people that seeks to analyze the experiences of homeless individuals in the context of structural factors.

During this practice, circulate around the room and make sure that the sentences meet the criteria for introducing a source. At the same time, correct formatting so that students learn how to format in-text citations by actually doing it rather than by simply applying rules.

Lesson 3: Patchwriting

The goals of this lesson are to have students think about their writing processes and their use of patchwriting, and to make suggestions for composing acceptable paraphrases. The lesson involves a meticulous in-class examination of student writing, which is valuable in itself. First, prepare a handout with excerpts from a text the students have read. Then include examples of patchwriting based on these readings from student writing from previous classes. Here is one such example:

Original text:

One hot day I found a large jug of Pat O'Brien's Hurricane mix. The jug had been opened but was still ice cold. I drank three large glasses before it became apparent to me that someone

had added the rum to the mix, and not a little rum. I never tasted the rum, and by the time I began to feel the effects I had already ingested a very large quantity of the beverage. Some divers would have considered this a boon, but being suddenly intoxicated in a public place in the early afternoon is not my idea of a good time. (Eighner 1993, 116; underlining added)

Student writing:

As to the story about finding and drinking the hurricane mix, he drank three opened glasses of Hurricane Mix with rum by accident. Eighner (1993) said: “Some divers would have considered this a boon, but being suddenly intoxicated in a public place in the early afternoon is not my idea of a good time” (116).

In class, read both the original and the student writing aloud, and see if there are any immediate student reactions that you can build on. If not, begin by having the students underline words that occur in both the student writing and the original (as shown above). Then, discuss the overlap. In this example, it is useful to have the students consider the first and second student sentences separately. The second sentence is a cited exact quotation and does not present any referencing problems. The first sentence, however, is an unacceptable paraphrase. Ask the students why the student might have written the first sentence, since it is clear from the second that he knew how to quote and cite properly. This example turns on vocabulary; the student probably borrowed the terms “Hurricane Mix” and “rum” because he didn’t know synonyms for them. Explain that one way to generate an acceptable paraphrase is to omit the specifics of the original. Have the students brainstorm replacement terms (e.g., *beverage*, *a fair amount*, and *alcohol*). Teach the word *mixer* if necessary, and either model a more general paraphrase or have the students write their own. Here is an example:

Eighner found a beverage that he thought was a mixer and drank a fair amount of it. Later, he realized that there was alcohol in it and he regretted having drunk it.

Then, look at a second example of a student paraphrase taken from the same Eighner excerpt:

In Eighner (1993), author proof the one stereotype totally wrong, according to which most people think that homeless people are drunker. The author drank the three glasses of juice and after drinking he come to know that somebody mixed rum in it. He felt very shamed for being intoxicated in a public place in the afternoon (116).

This second example not only gives the students more practice at identifying unacceptable paraphrases, but it also raises an issue of interpretation. The third sentence characterizes Eighner as having been ashamed. Some students may point out that this is not in the original quote, and that therefore it is unacceptable. Explain that this example uses the first sentence to introduce the student's point, the second sentence to give the specifics of the example, and the third to interpret the example. The use of "shamed" is the student's interpretation, which is appropriate, but the use of "being intoxicated in a public place in the afternoon" is problematic since it is Eighner's words, with "suddenly" and "early" omitted. Consider with the students how the third sentence might be corrected. Explain that they could use the word "intoxicated" without quotation marks, as that is a common word. Then, have them look for unusual words that Eighner used or defined that require quotes. In the original text these include terms such as "ingested" and "divers." (In this context "divers" refers to homeless people who search, or "dive," for edible food or other items in large trash containers called "Dumpsters.")

Next have the students look at a third example of patchwriting:

Original text:

Eating safely from the Dumpsters involves three principles: using the senses and common sense to evaluate the condition of the found materials, knowing the Dumpsters of a given area and checking them regularly, and seeking always to answer the question "Why was this discarded?" (Eighner 1993, 112–13)

Student writing:

And even he is a homeless person and a dumpster diver but he never ask money from the others people because he not only can gets foods by himself but he also using his common sense to evaluate the condition of the things he found. For example, Eighner knew the way to get a fresh pizzas...

Here, the student borrowed a phrase, reworded it slightly, and used it within his own context. Have the students describe each of the contexts. Eighner's context was a set of instructions on how to find food that is safe to eat, whereas the student's context was an argument that some homeless people are self-reliant rather than dependent on society. Then, have the students locate both the borrowed phrase and the discussion of pizza in the original text. The two are separated by a few pages, so it is clear that the student writer brought them together to build his argument. Point out that the student did a good job constructing textual authority in that he used the reference to support his own point.

Finally, introduce the term *patchwriting*, and explain the metaphor of a quilt. Talk about writing process, and ask the students whether they write straight from their heads, or patch texts together. Explain that patchwriting may lead to accusations of plagiarism.

Lesson 4: How references function

The goal of this lesson is to show students that referencing places authors in a discourse community and helps construct their authority. The students reread a text that they have already read for content: Chapter 1 from *Paths to Homelessness* by Timmer, Eitzen, and Talley (1994, 3–9). The students have previously outlined the three main explanations of homelessness discussed in the text and know that Timmer, Eitzen, and Talley (1994) intend to analyze homelessness both from the perspective of structural forces and from the perspective of human experience.

This reading is especially well suited to the lesson because it has references with a variety of functions. Begin the lesson by having the students highlight all the references in the text. Then, have them determine how each reference functions. Depending on the class,

either ask students to name the functions themselves or provide a list of possible functions that are phrased colloquially so that they

are useful and usable to the students. Table 1 contains a list of four references and their functions.

No.	Reference	Function
1.	The government's data for 1991 show that 43 percent of the nation's poor were found inside central cities (U.S. Bureau of the Census 1992: 1).	Gives the primary source of the data.
2.	Elliot Liebow argues (and we agree) that "the only things that separate people who have a home from those who do not are money and social support: Homeless people are homeless because they cannot afford a home, and their friends and family can't, or won't, help them out. I don't want to overlook the differences among us but I don't think they're as important as the samenesses in us" (quoted in Coughlin 1993: A8).	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Supports the argument by name-dropping and drawing on expert support. • Demonstrates conceptual alignment within a field. • Reveals that the authors did not read the original Liebow text.
3.	A third type of explanatory scheme, the "politics of compassion," prevails among contemporary social scientists (for a critique of this approach, see Hoch and Slayton 1989).	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Shows that authors are informed about current discussions. • Reveals disagreements in the field. • Invites the reader into the discourse community by directing him or her to other sources that might offer additional explanation.
4.	There are two fundamental problems with this approach, as Hoch and Slayton (1989) have argued. First, it overlooks the common economic and class origins of the old and new homeless. Second,...	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Signals a change in voice. • Indicates that the rest of the paragraph is a summary of Hoch and Slayton (1989).

Table 1. References and functions from Timmer, Eitzen, and Talley (1994)

The first reference illustrates that the use of statistics requires a supporting citation. Explain that writers do not just make up numbers, and that even some words such as “most” or “majority” may signal the need for a citation.

The second reference illustrates the use of expert support for the claims. Have the students discuss why the writers chose to include Liebow’s words when they could have made the argument themselves. Discuss with the students the fact that sometimes a claim has more authority if the author makes it in his or her own voice. (If, for example, I were to use quotes around a term such as *discourse community* in a research article for TESOL scholars, I would sound like I had not yet mastered the term and would undermine my own authority.) Also, have the students consider whether the fact that the writers did not read Liebow in the original detracts from the authority they obtain from citing him.

The third reference, like the others, shows that the writers are members of a discourse community who read the work of others who are writing about the same topic. Point out that the reference models how writers speak to each other in texts and treats the readers (in this case, your students) as members of the community by pointing them toward further reading.

The fourth reference signals a shift in voice; the text is no longer in the voice of the writers, but is now a summary of a text by other writers. This reference reinforces the notion that voices must be kept separate. Explain to the students that they can use a reference like this one at the beginning of a paragraph to introduce a summary in their writing, without having to use a citation for each sentence.

After examining how the references function in the text, it is useful to consider an example of quoting out of context. Have the students consider this excerpt from the original and the quote that follows:

Original text:

How are we to understand the phenomenon of homelessness? The most commonly used explanation focuses on the faults of those individuals who are homeless...the homeless are homeless because they are drunk, unstable, or

lazy. The problem with this approach is that it blames the victim and ignores the powerful structural forces that push many people into difficult situations beyond their control. (Timmer, Eitzen, and Talley 1994, 4)

Sentence with quote:

Timmer, Eitzen, and Talley (1994, 4) explained that “the homeless are homeless because they are drunk, unstable, or lazy.”

Ask the students whether this sentence could be used in a paper or not, and to explain their reasoning. The point is that it cannot be used because it misrepresents the position of the authors.

Follow-up exercise

As a follow-up, assign an exercise that combines the points of this lesson with the idea of developing a controlling idea. Have the students examine each other’s papers in writing groups. First, have them identify the controlling argument of the paper. Second, have them look for aspects of originality, first by noting whether they have read the controlling idea in one of the course readings or not, and then by looking for fresh juxtapositions of the readings and inclusion of life experiences or critical analyses. Third, have the students highlight the references and describe how each one functions. As they do this, have the students look for instances of quoting out of context. Having students do this for one another after having read the same texts leads to rich discussions and helps students understand how to establish textual authority.

Lesson 5: Cultural differences

The goal of this lesson is to encourage students to talk about their past writing experiences, discuss quoting and paraphrasing, and clarify cultural differences in writing and referencing styles. Prepare a handout with a quote from a student that reflects a culturally different way of constructing textual authority. Several such quotes appear in Ramanathan and Atkinson (1999). Here is one example:

I consider it important to memorize sentences to write better.... If the English teacher required me to write a long English essay...I would turn to famous sayings and sentences derived from

famous writers and essays on the same topic. I would imitate what other people say and use their sentences in my essays. I would at most change a single word but I would not change the main frame or structure... If my English teacher required me to write long English essays, I would use famous sayings, proverbs, and quotable phrases quite often, just as I use them very often in writing Chinese essays, for I consider they are essential in writing Chinese and English essays. (Ramanathan and Atkinson 1999, 234)

You may want to delete the word “Chinese” so that the students can speculate where the writer is from.

Have the students freewrite in response to the quote. This prompt works well because it mentions imitating and using other authors’ sentences, which could yield unattributed quotes, as well as borrowing without “chang[ing] the main frame or structure,” which is global plagiarism. In terms of establishing authority, the quote raises the issue of using famous sayings and proverbs, and also the notion that using the sentences from established writers yields better writing than composing one’s own sentences.

After the students write for ten minutes or so, ask them to discuss the quote. Allowing an open discussion provides a good opportunity for the teacher to learn about other writing cultures. It also creates an opportunity for the teacher to explain key points about English style, such as the fact that placing the main point at the end of an essay may confuse English-speaking readers because they cannot tell whether the writer is using the references for critique or support. I have found that this prompt works well to stimulate discussion among students from a variety of countries regarding a variety of topics related to referencing, including cheating and cultural differences in writing style.

Final thoughts

These five lessons represent a new approach to teaching referencing that focuses on the separation of voices and the construction of textual authority. By making the teaching of referencing an integral part of reading and writing instruction, the lessons seek to teach

aspects of referencing that academics may find self-evident and to open up new discussions of textual borrowing. They are not comprehensive, but they are a beginning.

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Handout for Lesson on Defining Quote and Paraphrase

Establishing Textual Authority... • Jennifer A. Mott-Smith

1. Definitions

Quote: A *word* or *group of words* taken from another source.

- A quote may be words you read or heard.
- The words of the original source must be copied exactly.
- The quoted words must be enclosed in quotation marks (i.e., “ ”).
- The quote must be accompanied by a citation.

Paraphrase: An *idea* taken from another source, but expressed in your own words.

- The paraphrase may come from an oral or written source.
- The words of the original source must not be copied.
- The paraphrase is not enclosed in quotation marks.
- The paraphrase must be accompanied by a citation.

2. Instructions: Please read the following excerpt from Kozol (1994). Then decide if the quotes and paraphrases following it are acceptable.

It is commonly believed by many journalists and politicians that the homeless of America are, in large part, former patients of large mental hospitals who were deinstitutionalized in the 1970s—the consequence, it is sometimes said, of misguided liberal opinion, which favored the treatment of such persons in community-based centers. It is argued that this policy, and the subsequent failure of society to build such centers or to provide them in sufficient number, is the primary cause of homelessness in the United States.

Those who work among the homeless do not find that explanation satisfactory. While conceding that a certain number of the homeless are, or have been, mentally unwell, they believe that, in the case of most unsheltered people, the primary reason is economic rather than clinical. The cause of homelessness, they say with disarming logic, is the lack of homes and of income with which to rent or acquire them....

One year later, the *Washington Post* reported that the number of homeless families in Washington, D.C., had grown by 500 percent over the previous twelve months. In New York City, the waiting list for public housing now contains two hundred thousand names. The waiting is eighteen years.

Why, in the face of these statistics, are we impelled to find a psychiatric explanation for the growth of homelessness in the United States?

Source: Kozol, J. 1994. Distancing the homeless. In *The writer's presence: A pool of essays*, ed. D. McQuade and R. Atwan, 530–40. Boston: St. Martin's.

3. Instructions: Look at these quotes and decide whether they are acceptable. If they are not acceptable, correct them.

- a. Kozol (1994, 530) explained that “It is commonly believed that the homeless of America are former patients of mental hospitals.”
- b. Kozol (1994, 530) argued that “The cause of homelessness is the lack of homes and of income with which to rent or acquire them.”
- c. Kozol (1994, 531) wrote that “the Washington Post reported that the number of homeless families in Washington, D.C., had grown by five hundred percent over the previous twelve months.”

Note: When I say a quote must be copied *exactly*, I mean *exactly*! ☺

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4. Instructions: Look at these paraphrases and decide whether they are acceptable. Do not try to correct them.

- a. Kozol (1994) explained that it is commonly believed that the homeless of America are former patients of mental hospitals.
- b. Kozol (1994) explained that it is commonly believed by many journalists and politicians that the homeless of America are, in large part, former patients of large mental hospitals.
- c. Kozol (1994) explained that it is often thought by news media and government employees that homeless people in the United States are, mostly, old patients of mental hospitals.
- d. Kozol (1994) claimed that the causes of homelessness were seen differently by two groups. The first group included politicians and journalists, who believe that homelessness is caused by letting mental patients out of hospitals where they used to live. The second group included people who work with the homeless, who believe that homelessness is caused by not having enough money or available cheap housing.

Note: It can be quite difficult to paraphrase only one sentence, since it is not easy to get away from the original words and phrasing. Try paraphrasing a larger section. When you paraphrase a whole text, leaving out the details but giving the structure of the main argument, it is called a summary.